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No. 6

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LABOR

SCIENTIFIC-TECHNICAL REVOLUTION, TRAINING OF WORKER CADRES

Moscow SHKOLA I PROIZVOISTVO in Russian No 3, Mar 80 pp 23-26

[Article by N. G. Chumachenko, Associate Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences: "Socioeconomic Problems of the Scientific-Technical Revolution and the Training of Worker Cadres"]

[Text] It is a characteristic of the scientific-technical revolution that on the basis of increasingly complete transformation of science into a direct productive force of society, profound changes occur in the technology of production, equipment and the objects of labor, in the organization of management and the nature and content of man's labor activity. Under its influence, new branches of industry are created, a qualitatively new technology is adapted, artificial and synthetic materials are widely used, and the rapid development of automation occurs.

The scientific-technical revolution has an enormous effect on all aspects of socioeconomic development. The technical prerequisites for this revolution are identical in both capitalist and socialist societies. Its social consequences, however, are different; they depend on the nature of the social system and on the form of ownership of the means of production. In capitalism, under conditions of class antagonism and the exploitation of hired labor, the results of the scientific-technical revolution are directed against society. The production relations of modern capitalism, as the CPSU Program emphasized, "are too highly specialized for scientific-technical revolution. Only socialism is capable of carrying out this revolution and utilizing its fruits."

In socialist society the realization of scientific-technical achievements has been subordinated to the action of objective economic laws. Under these conditions systematic organization of the process of development of science and technology became possible. This is also a basic prerequisite for controlling the social phenomena created by the scientific-technical revolution.

The CPSU Central Committee decrees "On the Further Improvement of the Economic Mechanism and the Goals of the Party and State Organs" and the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers "On Improving Planning and Strengthening the Influence of the Economic Mechanism on Increasing the Effectiveness of Production and the Quality of Work," enacted in July 1979, mark a new stage in the systematic implementation of the Party's economic policy and of the decisions of the 25th CPSU Congress and subsequent plenums of the Party Central Committee and the positions found in Comrade Brezhnev's speeches on further improving the planned management of the economy, developing democratic beginnings in the management of production and increasing labor collectives' creative initiative.

The decree is characterized by scientific validity and the utilization of enormous practical experience and the results of many long-term experiments. It establishes that the most important trend in the improvement of planning work is selecting the most effective ways to achieve high ultimate results, rationally combining the principles of branch and territorial development and of long- and short-range plans, improving inter- and intrabranh ratios and ensuring balanced growth of the economy. The content of planning will be raised to a qualitatively new level by strengthening of the role of long-range plans, the widespread application of the program-target method and the introduction of a system of scientifically valid technical-economic norms and quotas.

The implementation of the indicated decrees will ensure the solution of the problems of raising the level of planning and economic management, bringing them into line with the requirements of the stage of the development of socialism, achieving a significant increase in the effectiveness of socialized production, accelerating scientific-technical progress and increasing labor productivity, improving product quality and ensuring a steady increase in the country's economy and the Soviet people's prosperity on this basis.

The social consequences of the scientific-technical revolution are distinguished by great diversity. Analysis and evaluation of them are necessary not only for economists and production organizers. This is no less important for workers in pedagogical science and practice. The non-specialized school is being called on to reflect more completely and more deeply the needs of production, its present and future day and to devote more attention to the training of personnel for whom the national economy is experiencing demand. It has been committed to do so by the December (1977) decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers on the schools, which set the task of radically reorganizing the work of the schools to match the needs and requirements of production and of attracting young people to work in its key sectors.

Let us dwell briefly on the manifestations and results of the scientific technical revolution which are most immediately and directly connected with the practical training and education of students and, above all, with their preparation for choosing and successfully mastering trades.

The development of science and technology gives rise to changes in the social-class structure of society. The emergence of new branches of production and the disappearance or social transformation of old ones, change in the distribution of productive forces countrywide--all of these factors in turn cause significant shifts in the structure of branch and territorial employment of the population. Thus, during the period from 1965 to 1978 the proportion of workers in industry, construction and transportation increased by four percent. Overall, however, the segment of the population employed in branches of physical production decreased by 5.4 percent during this period and, on the contrary, increased to the same extent in nonproductive branches.² A perceptible increase in employment in the nonproductive field occurred in education, public health, the field of culture and art and particularly in science (nearly double during the last 13 years).³

The noted changes in the relationship of the workers of productive and nonproductive fields are a natural consequence of the development of productive forces. "The country is the richer," noted Karl Marx, "the smaller the productive population in relation to the nonproductive at the same quantity of products. For the relatively small numbers of the productive population would be only another reflection of the relative height of productive labor."⁴

Shifts also occurred in the social structure of the population. Here the persistent tendency to relative and absolute growth in the size of the working class should first be noted. Thus, while in 1975 the number of workers increased 1.3-fold in comparison with 1965 and totalled 71.6 million people, in 1978 it increased 1.4-fold and totalled 75.9 million people. Particularly high rates of increase in the number of workers were obtained in those branches of industry which determine subsequent scientific-technical progress: machine-building, metallurgy, chemistry and electrical energy. Increase in the working class was also observed in agriculture, particularly on collective farms. In 1975 the numbers of workers among the rural population of collective farms and other agricultural enterprises increased 1.1-fold compared to 1965, and in 1978, 1.2-fold.⁵ Noting this new tendency, Comrade L. I. Brezhnev spoke at the 15th Congress of USSR Trade Unions of the fact that "the working class is now directly playing an enormous role, not only in industry but also in agricultural production. The detachment of workers employed in the agrarian sector of our economy...will also increase in the future as agricultural labor is transformed into a variety of industrial labor."⁶

The rapid growth of the intelligentsia and of the numbers of engineers and technicians engaged in servicing electronic computers, operating complex machines and adjusting machines and instruments is also entirely natural under the conditions of scientific-technical revolution. It should be noted that with the general increase in numbers of industrial workers the rates

of increase in the numbers of engineering and technical workers is somewhat higher under modern conditions than that of workers and office workers. In 1976 they were 147.7, 112.7 and 117.6 percent of their 1965 levels.

Such are the basic indices of the development of our society's occupational and social structure over the past 10-20 years. Will they persist in the future, say, in the long run until the year 2000? If the qualitative side is contemplated, i.e., the increase in the employed, then the situation is not changing significantly. As the result of intensification of the demographic situation (reduction of the birthrate), the exhaustion of labor resources among able-bodied men and particularly among women engaged in the field of housework and on subsidiary farms, it does not seem possible to increase the numbers of those employed in the branches of the national economy in the near and distant future.

The materials of the 25th CPSU Congress and the decrees of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers on improving the economic mechanism substantiate the necessity of utilizing intensive factors of economic growth. This means that production volumes should be increased not by the enlistment of new workers--there is no longer anywhere to get them--but chiefly by the creation and rational use of new technology, the intelligent organization of labor and increase in workers' skills, rational placement of them, awareness and a creative attitude toward management. In other words, fresh gains remain to be made in the development of the economy--not through numbers but through skill. This is a social commission for our schools. They must be able to prepare young people better for work, equip them with knowledge, abilities and skills and help them deliberately select a trade and a place of work.

The scientific-technical revolution is exerting an increasing influence on the nature and content of labor. Redistribution of functions between man and machine is taking place. A little more than 100 years ago the relative significance of human energy expenditures on production was 15 percent, 79 percent was due to draft animals, and only 6 percent to the operation of machines. At present the relative significance of live human labor has decreased to 3 percent, expenditures of the motive power of draft animals are approximately 1 percent, and 96 percent falls to the share of machines.⁸ Although they are highly approximate, the data cited reflect the general tendency to reduction of the role of man as a source of energy. Characterizing the influence of technical progress on the nature and content of human productive activity, V. I. Lenin wrote, "[T]he progress of technology is manifested precisely in the fact that human labor is increasingly pushed into the background by machine labor."⁹

Under the influence of scientific-technical progress, the relationship between intellectual and physical labor changes. In this case, increase in the share of intellectual labor and relative decrease in expenditures

of physical labor occur. Along with the quantitative increase in workers engaged in intellectual labor, substantial changes take place in the structure of intellectual labor. The work of engineering and technical workers becomes more complex; the elements of analysis and of a creative approach to the performance of functions assume ever-increasing significance in it.

Physical labor also acquires a new quality. It no longer amounts merely to physical efforts, expenditures of energy, inasmuch as the worker's handling of even the simplest equipment and instruments requires a certain level of knowledge. As the degree of mechanization and automatization of production increases, people will be liberated from heavy, monotonous and harmful types of work. The experience of our country's leading enterprises and farms are convincing evidence of this.

The basic trends in the economic development of the country's national economy and especially of industry--not only in the 10th Five Year Plan but also in the long run--are increased intensification of production, which presupposes accelerated introduction of the achievements of scientific-technical progress, reinforcement of the policy of economy and improvement of the quality of work. The growth of labor productivity is a decisive condition which ensures consistent increase in the effectiveness of socialized production. During the 9th Five Year Plan an 84 percent increase in industrial production was obtained owing to this factor, and approximately 90 percent is planned in the 10th.¹⁰ In this case the increase in the volume of industrial output is planned to be achieved basically by renovating the means of production and ensuring quantitative and qualitative correlation of the occupational skills structure of personnel in general and of workers in particular.

Another manifestation of the scientific-technical revolution is change in the numbers and proportion of specific categories of workers in the branches of industry, the structure of those employed in physical and intellectual work in production, the degree of mechanization and automatization of labor, reduction of the portion of workers carrying out work by hand with and without machines.

The widespread introduction of technical means to man's labor activity is producing a new style of production thought, caused by the high level of the technical machine-worker ratio. This leads to change in the occupational skills structure of worker cadres, its expansion and improvement and the mastery of related trades and specialties by workers. Thus, the results of studies at the industrial enterprises of the Don region showed that during the period from 1959 to 1977 the number of highly skilled workers increased 2.2-fold and of skilled workers, 1.7-fold. The number of workers employed in low and unskilled labor decreased by ten-seventeenths. It should be noted that the increase in the role of properly skilled labor in production is still not sufficiently characterized by an increase in the proportion of skilled workers. Scientific-technical progress adds a new content to the concept of

skills. The leading role is being played not by masterly performance but by technical knowledge, the ability to adapt to the new technology and the improvements in it.

Under these conditions the question of what the modern worker should be like in order for his vocational training to correspond to the level of development of production, is timely and of vital importance. In order to answer it, it is first of all necessary to have a clear picture of the new requirements for worker cadres which arise in the course of the technical improvement of production and the emergence of new plants and branches as well as of the equipment based on application of electronics, electric automation, telemechanics, etc., which radically changing the nature and content of the worker's labor, imposing greater demands for nonspecialized, general technical and specialized training of him and increasing the demand of production for highly skilled worker cadres.

Of the branches of physical production the leading place in the creation of the material-technical base of developed socialism belongs to industry. One-third of the total number of the population employed in the country's national economy falls to its share. Half of the entire national income is produced in the branches of industry, more than 80 percent of the total increase resulting from increase in labor productivity, of which nearly half is the result of the workers' increased education and skills. Thus, in many ways, the further development of the economy depends on the level of the education and vocational training of cadres. The training of worker cadres--the most numerous detachment of workers--remains one of the most complex problems during the scientific-technical revolution.

A ramified system of personnel training has been established in our country. Preparation for work begins as early as elementary school. Here selection of a trade and mastery of elementary vocational skills are accomplished. To a decisive extent school determines the graduates' future path.

Analysis of the provision of branches of industry with worker cadres and of the composition of skilled groups shows that there is a shortage of workers, especially of skilled and highly skilled workers, with demand for worker cadres whose training involves long training periods constantly rising. Thus, while in 1965 only 35 percent of workers in industry needed long periods of vocational instruction, in 1970 their proportion reached 40 percent. Studies indicate that it will increase to 50 percent or even more in the coming ten year plan. This means that half the added demand for manpower will fall to the share of workers in highly skilled work requiring lengthy training periods. Consequently the regional requirements for worker cadres must be more carefully studied in solving the problem of assigning young people to the tracks for obtaining a secondary education.

At present the level of vocational education among workers in industry is still too low. For example, now, when solid vocational knowledge is necessary for 90 percent of specialties in ferrous metallurgy and 80 percent in mechanical engineering, 15-30 percent of workers in the Industrial Don Basin have a vocational training on the level of the RU [trade school], PTU [vocational technical school], FZU [factory and plant training school], masters' school, vocation school or higher education institution. Naturally, this is extremely inadequate, and industry is experiencing a growing demand for skilled worker cadres.

In recent years a significant gap has formed between the availability of the newest automatic equipment and the number of skilled workers necessary for its maintenance. At many leading machine-building enterprises, for example, the number of maintenance operators for automatic equipment is 1.3 to 2.3 of the norm. The shortage of personnel to service electronic technology is being felt with particular acuteness. The lack of such specialists and the low level of their skills is one of the reasons for the standstill of complex and expensive programmed digital control units.

The gap between the level of the workers' vocational training and the requirements of production is curbing the rate of scientific-technical progress and inflicting losses on the national economy. This is manifested in the slowing down of the growth rate of labor productivity and of the rate of assimilation of new technology, in an increase in defective output and loss of working time, and it promotes turnover of personnel. The data of random investigations conducted by the USSR Academy of Sciences Institute of Economics indicates that 70 percent of defective output and 30 percent of damage to equipment in machine-building results from the low skills level of the workers. 11

Scientific-technical progress also imposes new requirements for methods of vocational training of workers. The capacity to get his bearings in rapidly changing production conditions is required of the modern worker; this ability is primarily based on the ability to master new skills and the willingness to change work. In this connection the task of improving the polytechnical training of students is becoming increasingly urgent.

The assignment of students to training tracks after the eighth grade is an important problem in the training of cadres for production at the current stage and particularly in the future. Today young people are the basic source for replenishing the country's labor resources, fulfilling 90 percent of the added demand for workers. Their training and timely preparation for labor are basic conditions for the development of the economy. This large and important task is being solved today on the level of the republics and of the country as a whole.

The current system of education is not simply a conglomerate of different forms of institutions for the training of different levels of specialists: it is a system all links of which are interconnected. Changes in any one area of education have an effect on the others. For example, with the development of the network of vocational technical schools, which provide secondary education, the role of the secondary school is changing. It is important that the organs of public education promote the rational assignment of young people into the basic educational tracks, devoting paramount attention to building up the vocational technical schools, which are the basic forge for training the young people of the work shift.

In fact, at present more than half of secondary school graduates go directly into production. And naturally, without vocational training they are used on unskilled operations. Hence the increase in turnover because of unsatisfactory work, loss of interest in mastering the trade, etc., among young workers who do not have a specialized vocational education.

In this connection, it is alarming, for example, that only 16 percent of UkSSR secondary school graduates expressed a wish to learn a trade in a technical school. Apparently, serious thought must be given to vocational guidance for young people going out into the world.

Owing to existing conditions, other trades required in industry and in the field of service are not popular with young people. Since these mainly include trades for which demand is expanding and which the greater part of young people will receive, this should seriously trouble the public. Propaganda for occupations necessary for the national economy must be significantly strengthened in each specific region.

Comprehensive plans for the economic and social development of cities and regions may be of help in solving all these, as well as other, problems in the training of young people for work. The experience of developing such plans in a number of cities of the Ukraine has shown that the successful implementation of measures envisaged in economic and social development plans facilitates a comprehensive approach to the training of students for work in the field of physical production and yields perceptible results.

FOOTNOTES

1. "Programma Kommunisticheskoy partii Sovetskogo Soyuza" [Program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union], Politizdat, Moscow, 1962, pp 27-28.
2. See, "Narodnoye khozyaystvo SSSR v 1978 g.; Stat. ezhegodnik" [The USSR National Economy: A Statistical Yearbook], Moscow, 1978, p 364.

3. See, *Ibid.*, p 866.
4. Marx, K., Engels, F. "Doch." [Works], Vol 26, ch 1, p 215.
5. See, "Narodnoye khozyaystvo SSSR v 1978 g: Stat. eshegodnik" [The USSR National Economy in 1978: A Statistical Yearbook], Moscow, 1979, p 293.
6. Brezhnev, L. I. "Leninskii kurs" [Following Lenin's Path], Vol 3, Moscow, 1972, p 483.
7. "Narodnoye khozyaystvo SSSR za 60 let" [The USSR National Economy Over 60 Years], Moscow, 1977, p 181.
8. See, Gusev, A.; Radayev, V. "Besedy o nauchno-tekhnicheskoy revolyutsii" [Lectures on the Scientific-Technical Revolution], Moscow, 1977, p 166.
9. Lenin, V. I. "Poln. sobr. soch" [Collected Works], vol 1, p 78.
10. "Materialy XXV s"ezda KPSS" [Materials of the 25th CPSU Congress], Moscow, 1976, pp 37, 44.
11. Moskovich, V. "Podgotovka rabochikh kadrov i potrebnosti proizvodstva" [Training of Worker Cadres and Production Requirements], VOPROSY EKONOMIKI, 1975, No 12, p 47.

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LABOR

PLANNING WAGES ACCORDING TO NORMS

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 13, Mar 80 p 7

[Article by V. Moskalenko, Deputy Division Chief at Gosplan USSR: "Planning Wages by Norms"]

[Text] Consultations on the various problems of improving the economic mechanism are published under this rubric. Today, at the request of our readers, we are discussing the special characteristics of planning wages by norms.

As is provided for by the 12 July 1979 Decree of the CC CPSU and USSR Council of Ministers, beginning with the 11th Five-Year Plan industrial ministries and associations and enterprises will have wage norms per ruble of output approved for them (in individual branches the planned wage fund is being retained). Such norms have the task of ensuring a closer and economically substantiated connection between production volumes and the amount of resources assigned for wages, and of strengthening the dependence of the wages of each worker and of labor collectives as a whole upon increasing labor productivity and improving the final work results of production associations (enterprises).

In order to determine the wage norms per ruble of output account is taken of the expenditures scheduled in the plan for the wages of industrial production personnel as related to the volume of output production in keeping with the indicator used for planning labor productivity. The objective conditions for introducing the normative method are being created by the shift to evaluating in terms of normed net output or of another indicator of output volume which more accurately reflects production dynamics.

Two points should be kept in mind here. First, when expenditures are calculated account is not taken of payments from the material incentives fund, and, second, and this has to be especially emphasized, the expenditures for the wages of only industrial production personnel are included in the norm. The wage fund of non-industrial personnel is planned

separately -- on the basis of the corresponding branch methodologies. But the overall wage fund (for all types of work) is defined as the amount of the wage fund of industrial production personnel calculated according to the established norms and the wage fund of non-industrial and unscheduled personnel.

Can the Norms Change?

The norms have a long term character: They are not reviewed during the five-year plan without sufficiently serious and objective reasons. In particular, changes are not permitted in the norm which has been established for an enterprise for a concrete year of a five-year plan on account of the production of defective output or an over-expenditure of funds for wages.

A ministry may as an exception change a norm which has been approved for an enterprise only if there are important deviations in the conditions of its work from those stipulated in the five-year plan, for example, if there are fundamental changes in the structure and technology of production, in cooperative deliveries, and in certain other cases (see point 13 of the Methodological Instructions on the procedure for determining long term wage normatives per ruble of output).

However, the established norm is subject to mandatory re-approval if an enterprise has been allocated additional funds for the wage fund in connection with the realization in a centralized manner of measures to increase the wages of workers and employees, to introduce (or increase) area wage coefficients, and to change the amounts of additional pay for night work and so forth.

In accordance with point 12 of the Methodological Instructions, ministries have been granted the right in cases of necessity (seasonal fluctuations in the production of output, the technological reorganization of production) to approve quarterly wage norms per ruble of output for their subordinate enterprises. However, the norm which has been approved for the enterprise in the five-year plan for the year as a whole is retained.

The shift to the normative planning of wages is an important step in improving the development of the labor plan. And, of course, it does not amount solely to replacing one approved wage indicator (absolute) by another (relative). Under the new conditions there are increased demands upon the quality of planning labor expenditures and wages for the production of output, and upon their validity and coordination with progressive labor norms and norms of the size of various categories of personnel. For this reason, the shift to the normative method of planning

wages is inseparably connected with a rise in the level of norm setting for the labor of workers and employees and with an expansion of the sphere of its application.

Work to prepare for the shift to the normative planning of wages at enterprises has to be combined and coordinated with the introduction of an indicator of normed net output or of another indicator which reflects changes in the labor intensiveness of the production program more accurately than gross (or commodity) output. The use of normed net output for labor calculations makes it possible to determine dynamics of wage expenditures per ruble of output more reliably and to level out the influence on them of factors which are not directly connected with the work of a given enterprise. At the same time, there is an elimination of the possibility for an enterprise to invalidly attain additional funds for wages when it overfulfills the plan on the basis of the use, for example, of more expensive raw materials and materials.

In determining the norms, account is taken of an increase in labor productivity (including on the basis of individual factors) which is planned in the five-year plan of associations and enterprises and the relationship between an increase in labor productivity and an increase in the average wages of industrial personnel which is closely connected with this. The intensity of plans for production, labor productivity, and output quality is mandatorily taken account of.

How the Calculations are Performed

On the basis of the wage norm per ruble of output which has been approved for a year of the five-year plan, an association (enterprise), when it works out its annual plan, independently fixes an absolute wage fund for its industrial production personnel. This data is communicated to the ministry or to another superior organization which is obliged to control the correspondence between the industrial personnel wage fund which has been calculated by the association (enterprise) and the norm which has been approved in the five-year plan. Let us assume that in the five-year plan for 1981-1985 the following wage norms per ruble of net (normed) output are stipulated:

Years of the Five-Year Plan	Norm (kopeks)
1981	68.52
1982	67.23
1983	65.80
1984	64.36
1985	63.55

Regardless of the amount of actual wage expenditures for industrial personnel, the norm which has been approved for the following year remains stable.

Let us assume that the amount of net output (normed) in the plan for 1982 has been established for the enterprise at 12,680,000 rubles. In this case, the absolute planned wage fund for industrial personnel in 1982 $67.3 \times 12680 = 8,524,000$ rubles.

In addition, the wage fund for non-industrial personnel and unlisted personnel is fixed at 380,000 rubles. Consequently, the total planned wage fund in the enterprise will be: $8,524,000 + 380,000 = 8,904,000$ rubles.

Monies for the wage fund for industrial production personnel are issued to associations (enterprises) by the institutions of Gosbank USSR with regard to the actual production of output: within the quarterly plan -- for the full norm which has been approved in the plan for the current year (quarter). With an overfulfillment (underfulfillment) of the plan, they are issued in accordance with a norm which has been corrected with regard to a recalculation coefficient of the planned wage fund established for a given branch of industry.

As for the procedure for issuing monies for the wage fund of the workers of the non-industrial group of enterprises it remains as before.

The work experience of the associations and enterprises of a number of ministries during the current five-year plan shows that the new procedure for planning wage expenditures has important advantages. With a larger volume of output than provided for than the five-year plan associations (enterprises) will obtain a correspondingly larger wage fund. And this, in its turn, will increase the interest in making the best use of production reserves and labor productivity.

The new procedure for planning wage expenditures makes it possible to do away with their annual determination according to a base related to the level reached in the previous year. And this, in essence, eliminates the influence of economies (or over-expenditures) of the wage fund during the current year on the following year's planning indicators. As a result, if, for example, an enterprise has economized a part of its wage fund formed in accordance with the norm, it will be kept for it when the following year's plan is made up. And, on the contrary, an over-expenditure of the planned fund will not entail a corresponding increase in it in the subsequent years.

It is also important that an unutilized economy of the wage fund (compared to the established norm or the planned wage fund) will be able to be transferred by an enterprise at the end of the year into the material incentives fund. This will increase the interest in a careful use of planned wage monies.

Information: The Methodological Instructions on the Procedure for Determining Long Term Wage Norms per Ruble of Output have been published in *EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA* No. 45, 1979.

LABOR

DEFICIENCIES IN TRAINING, IMPROVING SKILLS OF KEY WORKERS

Minsk PROMYSHLENNOST' BELORUSSII in Russian No 1, Jan 80 pp 63-64

[Article by V. Zhukovskiy, chief of Department for Training and Improving Skills of Personnel, State Committee of Labor for the Belorussian SSR: "Work Application in Behalf of the State"]

[Text] For a considerable period of time now, the republic's enterprises have been experiencing a shortage of skilled workers in the leading professions. Even at enterprises and organizations having above-plan personnel strengths, many working positions are not occupied by individuals possessing the appropriate skills. On the basis of incomplete data, it would appear that this year the republic's national economy will experience a shortage of approximately 30,000 skilled workers. This applies in particular to such specialties as mechanic (a shortage of more than 3,000 individuals), machine operators (approximately 2,000), structure installers, steel erectors (1,500) and workers in many other mass professions.

Moreover, this occurs despite the constant concern being displayed for improving the process of training personnel directly during the course of production operations and strengthening and expanding the training-material base for training course combines. For example, there are 14 training course combines in operation at enterprises of the republic's light industry alone. However, as already mentioned, this problem is being solved in an extremely slow manner. What is wrong? Proper conditions for the professional training of workers have still not been created at many associations and enterprises. There have been incidents of training schedules being curtailed in an unjustified manner, of the absence of a systematic approach being employed in raising the skills of workers and also of failure to maintain the required training-material base. Owing to the absence of specially equipped training classrooms, technical training offices and sectors and workshops at a number of enterprises and at certain organizations of Minmestprom [Ministry of Local Industry] for the Belorussian SSR, Minlesprom [Ministry of the Timber Industry] for the Belorussian SSR, Minpishcheprom [Ministry of the Food Industry] for the Belorussian SSR, Mindorstroy [Ministry of Highway Construction] for the Belorussian SSR,

Minstroyaterialy [Ministry of the Construction Materials Industry] for the Belorussian SSR and also at individual enterprises of union subordination, exercises are being conducted in facilities that are unsuitable for training purposes (in recreation and reading rooms, in rooms for the acceptance of food and so forth), where it is impossible to use visual aids and technical means of instruction. Extremely poor use is being made of the training-material base of daytime professional technical schools for the training of workers at evening branches of these schools. It is sufficient to state that these branches are providing training for only 3,000 individuals annually, or 1 percent of the overall number of workers undergoing training.

The network of interplant training courses combines and training-production points organized at large enterprises is developing at a slow pace. Meanwhile, on the basis of economic contractual relationships, they could undertake to provide training for and improve the skills of workers attached to medium-size and small enterprises, which lack a proper training-material base and the conditions required for production-technical training.

Many ministries and departments are not devoting proper attention to improving the planning for personnel training during production operations. Prior to approving the plans for worker training, no work is being carried out in connection with developing annual and long-term balance estimates for the additional requirements for skilled workers and the sources for satisfying these requirements by professions and specialties. As a result, the worker training plans do not reflect the actual production requirements for workers in the specific professions and specialties and the plans are easily over-fulfilled and oriented mainly towards obtaining manpower from other sources. Thus, Minmestprom for the Belorussian SSR, Minstroyaterialy for the Belorussian SSR, Minmyasomolprom [Ministry of the Meat and Dairy Industry] for the Belorussian SSR and others are not planning to train workers for the principal technological and multiple-skill professions, nor are they requiring their subordinate organizations and enterprises to do this. Instead, they are orienting themselves towards obtaining skilled workers from other sources. At enterprises and organizations of Minmestprom for the Belorussian SSR, Minmestprom for the Belorussian SSR, Minpiishcheprom for the Belorussian SSR and at many enterprises of union subordination, the training of skilled workers continues to be carried out mainly on the basis of the ineffective individual method of instruction. Quite often the established requirements for organizing the training process are not being observed. Theoretical exercises are being carried out on a low level. There have been cases of untrained workers being placed immediately in a high wage category. The selection of teachers and instructors for production training leaves a great deal to be desired. Many of them lack the proper education, the required professional training and work experience. Training-methodological councils have not been created in all areas. As a result, the workers are not obtaining the required knowledge on the principles of production organization and technology or on the installation and operation of equipment.

The training of skilled personnel in training course combines, by means of courses and in schools, which is a more progressive form of instruction, is being disseminated and employed throughout our republic in a very slow manner. For example, of 200,000 workers and kolkhoz members who received production training in 1976, only one out of every three received instruction in training course combines, in schools or by means of courses.

Just as in the past, the proportion of course instruction in many ministries and departments, compared to the overall amount of personnel production training, is extremely negligible. In Minlesprom for the Belorussian SSR, it amounts to only 6.7 percent, Minpishcheprom for the Belorussian SSR -- 7.7, Minstroyaterialy for the Belorussian SSR -- 2.6 percent. Moreover, during the past 2 years this index has decreased by 17-20 percent for the mentioned ministries.

The training of workers in secondary or related professions and also in leading work methods is being carried out at a low level at a number of enterprises. Great fluctuations are being observed in the periodicity of training. Whereas on the average each worker undergoes retraining once every 6 years, in Minleskhoz [Ministry of Forestry] for the Belorussian SSR and Mindorstroy for the Belorussian SSR -- once every 12-20 years. Only two or three of every 100 workers are receiving training in secondary or related professions. For individual ministries and departments, the index for improving the skills of workers in schools for leading work methods is even lower.

Despite the constant development of the network of institutes, faculties and courses for improving the skills of engineering and technical workers and employees, the principal form of instruction consists of short-term courses for improving skills at enterprises and organizations. Thus, less than 20 percent of the engineering and technical workers and specialists received training last year at institutes for improving skills, whereas approximately 70 percent underwent training directly within the training course network of enterprises and organizations. The lowest index for improving skills occurred at institutes and faculties within Minleskhoz for the Belorussian SSR and Minmyasomolprom for the Belorussian SSR. Specialists attached to enterprises of the latter, for example, improve their skills only once every 8-10 years.

The work of improving the skills of workers attached to those ministries, departments, enterprises and organizations responsible for training matters and for improving the skills of personnel has not been organized properly throughout the republic, despite the fact that a republic institute for improving skills has been created at Gosprofobr [State Committee for Professional Technical Education of the Council of Ministers for the Belorussian SSR]. Last year, 123 individuals improved their skills here; for the most part, these were workers attached to training course combines.

A task of priority importance is that of training skilled workers for enterprises and projects which entered operations only recently, since it is

at such facilities that the latest scientific and engineering achievements are introduced into production operations, achievements which raise considerably the requirements for skill and expertise among the personnel. However, just the opposite sometimes happens in actual practice. For example, at the Zhlovinsk Artificial Fur Factory, the Dobrush Porcelain Plant and at other new construction enterprises, annual and long-term balance estimates are generally not conducted with regard to the requirements for skilled workers and the sources for obtaining them, by professions and specialties, nor are determinations made as to the contingents of skilled personnel trained at related enterprises or directly during their own production operations. The requirements for skilled workers in multiple-skill professions are generally being met at the expense of active enterprises. And this inevitably affects the production results.

Moreover, the staffing of the production capabilities of these enterprises with skilled workers is being adversely affected by incomplete construction operations. As a rule, the construction of housing and projects of a socio-domestic and cultural nature is lagging considerably behind the placing in operation of production capabilities in all areas. The training-material base required for improving the skills of workers is not being created in advance. The construction of professional technical schools, training course combines and classrooms is being planned considerably later than the placing of enterprises in operation and work is not being carried out in connection with the acquisition of visual aids, technical means of instruction and training-methodological literature.

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LABOR

IMPROVEMENTS IN LIVING, WORKING CONDITIONS FOR RURAL YOUTH

Moscow IZVESTIYA in Russian 29 Mar 80 p 2

[Article by V. Mussalitin: "For Young Rural Workers"]

[Text] Youth in the rural areas. How do they live and work? On more than one occasion, this theme has been the subject of serious discussion in the permanent committees of the highest organ of state power in the country. The great amount of attention being given to this important problem by elected representatives of the people is both justified and understandable. A long-term and complex program for the intensification of agricultural production is being implemented in a consistent manner throughout the country, with youth being assigned a considerable role in carrying it out. The energy of the young people and their desire and ability to work have become a powerful impulse for promoting further changes in our rural areas and for improving agricultural production.

More than 5.5 million young workers are presently working in the rural areas. Tractor and combine operators, milkmaids, field crop growers and operators of industrial complexes for the fattening of livestock -- all of these individuals are making a worthy contribution towards implementing the plans outlined by the party.

The party and government are carrying out a great amount of work in connection with improving the living and working conditions for rural workers. More dwellings are being built than has been the case in the past and an increase has taken place in the number of cultural and trade centers and hospital complexes. The solving of many socio-cultural problems has promoted the retention of many young workers on their jobs.

During a joint meeting held recently in the Kremlin, the committees for youth affairs of the Soviet Union and the Soviet of Nationalities of the USSR Supreme Soviet discussed the problem of how the recommendations of the USSR Supreme Soviet for improving the production, social and domestic conditions of youth engaged in agriculture are being carried out. The meeting was conducted by the chairman of the Committee for Youth Affairs of

the Soviet Union, 1st secretary of the Chirchentskaya Oblast Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan, A.A. Askarov and by the chairman of the Committee for Youth Affairs of the Soviet of Nationalities, secretary to the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Belorussia A.T. Kuz'min.

During the course of preparing for the meeting, the deputies acquainted themselves with the status of affairs in the various areas. The members of the committees visited the Buryat ASSR, Krasnodarskiy and Stavropol'skiy krais, Moscow, Leningrad, Belgorodskaya and Ul'yankovskaya oblasts in the RSFSR, Ivano-Frankovskaya Oblast in the Ukrainian SSR, Vitebskaya Oblast in the Belorussian SSR and a number of villages in Uzbekistan, Lithuania, Moldavia, Turkmenistan and Estonia. The deputies presented their conclusions and recommendations to the committee.

The deputies thoroughly acquainted themselves with the materials received from a number of ministries, the AUCCTU, the Komsomol Central Committee, the People's Control Committee of the USSR and other interested ministries and departments throughout the country.

During the meeting, a report was delivered by the leader of the representative preparatory committee and chairman of the Executive Committee for the Stavropol'skiy Krai Soviet of Workers' Deputies, I.T. Taranov. Reports were also delivered by the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Land Reclamation and Water Management, the USSR Ministry of Rural Construction and the USSR State Committee for Providing Production-Technical Support for Agriculture.

It was mentioned during the meeting that noticeable progress had been achieved in recent years with regard to improving production, social and domestic conditions for agricultural workers, including youth. For example, these problems are being solved in an efficient manner in the Moldavian SSR and in Moscow and Leningrad oblasts. This has promoted the attraction of youth to work in agriculture and also growth in the labor activity of youth.

Rural youth knows how to work and enjoys working. And it is quite justified in expecting attention to be given to its needs and interests.

The deputies emphasized in their statements that the state and social organizations are beginning to display greater concern for the young rural workers. In measures that have been carried out, full consideration has been given to the recommendations introduced by the permanent committees of the chambers of the USSR Supreme Soviet, when examining the plans for economic and social development and the country's budgets and also other problems relating to their implementation.

Nevertheless, by no means is proper attention being given in all areas to the labor and daily living conditions of rural youth.

Deputies N.V. Merenishchev, E.G. Cafurzhanov, V.K. Starovoytov and I.I. Skiba raised important questions in their speeches. They criticized a number of substantial shortcomings and derelictions in the organization of the labor and daily living conditions of the youth. First of all, this represents a new level in the mechanization of labor. Many operations are being carried out manually in the rural areas, without the use of machines and mechanisms. The proportion of manual labor in animal husbandry is still high.

A fine work incentive is good earnings. The youth entering independent life have many expenses. However, owing to shortcomings in the organization of production and labor, the wage level for young workers and kolkhoz members on a number of farms remains low.

It was also noted during the meeting that proper attention is still not being given on many farms to those problems concerned with the adaptation of youth in the production collectives. There have been frequent incidents of youth who are participating in production operations for the very first time not being provided with work in keeping with their specialties and of failure to observe the privileges, norms and conditions for labor safety techniques and the protection of labor.

Well organized and good quality housing also means a great deal to the young workers. Following the July Plenum (1978) of the CPSU Central Committee, a great deal has been accomplished in connection with the reorganization of the rural areas and implementing improvements in the housing and domestic conditions for rural workers. Considerable material and financial resources are being allocated for this purpose. More assistance is being furnished to individual builders. The plans call for privileges to be extended to rural youth in obtaining loans for housing construction. Nevertheless, the rates for housing construction in the rural areas still leaves a great deal to be desired, similar to the construction of projects in the social sphere.

The deputies have emphasized the fact that in solving the socio-economic problems of the rural areas, special importance is being attached to further improving cultural services for the population, particularly youth. However, the development of a network of clubs is lagging seriously behind the requirements. Improvements must also be carried out with regard to furnishing material-technical support for the cultural-educational institutions.

In their speeches, the deputies devoted a considerable amount of time to the training of students for work in agriculture and for performing work in accordance with their professional orientation. According to the deputies, the successful solving of the task concerned with providing the rural areas with greater numbers of skilled machine operators and other personnel in the mass professions is dependent to a considerable degree upon further development of a network of rural professional technical

schools. But the construction of such schools in a number of republics, particularly in the Kazakh and Uzbek SSR's, is being carried out in an unsatisfactory manner.

In accordance with the questions examined, the committees handed down appropriate decisions containing recommendations for interested ministries, USSR state committees and departments and the councils of ministers of the union republics. The committees furnished information on the results of examination of a question to the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet.

The following individuals participated in the work of the meeting: chairman of the Soviet of the Union of the USSR Supreme Soviet A.P. Shitikov, chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities of the USSR Supreme Soviet V.P. Ruben, the secretary of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet M.P. Georgadze and the leaders of the interested ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR.

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LABOR

PROBLEMS OF JOB PLACEMENT IN KALUGA ANALYZED

Moscow PRAVDA in Russian 27, Mar 80 p 3

[Article by A. Zolotov, head of the Job Placement and Information Office:
"Looking For Work? How the Problem of Employment is Solved in Kaluga"]

[Text] I was prompted to take pen in hand by the observations which appear in print from time to time questioning the usefulness of municipal job placement and information offices. The authors of such publications emphasize the fact that, they say, the offices have bred a lot of superfluous "book-keeping"--applications, referrals, written authorizations--and that there is no noticeable practical return. That ostensibly job placement exclusively through the offices infringes the rights of the citizens and of the managers of enterprises. Is this so?

Of course not! It is not without reason that the decree of the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers and the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions "On the Further Strengthening of Labor Discipline and the Reduction of Turnover of Personnel in the National Economy" says, "Develop and implement measures for the further development of the network of job placement offices and improvement of their activity. Make wider use of the experience of cities in which hiring and the population's information on the requirements of associations, enterprises and organizations for manpower are carried out through the local labor organs."

Take our city. Like many regional centers of the country, it is developing at an accelerated rate; new plants and factories are being built; existing ones are being modernized; the network of cultural and domestic service enterprises is expanding. Naturally the demand for labor resources is growing. Under these conditions accurate estimation of personnel of all specialties and the possibility of exerting a practical influence on the provision of them to enterprises are especially important.

Ten years ago, in accordance with an idea of the Kaluga CPSU obkom and the oblispolkom a decision was made to conduct an experiment in our city: to hire people only with the direct participation of the job placement

and information office. The main idea was to focus information on the demand for, and supply of, manpower in one center.

Where did we begin? We set up an arrangement in which all workers and office workers, no matter which enterprise they joined, went through our office. Formerly, it took a person an average of 20 days to find work. He walked the streets, stopping at bulletin boards, thought it over, got an idea of what conditions were like at some plant or other from friends and only then crossed the threshold of the personnel department. We have liberated people from such a wearisome and unproductive pursuit. Today the municipal office has the most complete and exhaustive information on job openings and the type of work, salary, dormitories and even the availability of places in childrens' institutions. Detailed conversation with his staff member helps the individual make the right choice.

Sometimes you hear that the director of a plant or other enterprise does not like it when someone meddles in his business. But what does meddling mean? We are not meddling; we are participating, helping the common cause. At the beginning of the experiment we had conflicts with some directors who wanted to remain people in excess of the plan, not troubling themselves with concern for the organization of labor. But in the end they, too, understood that it is in the interests of the enterprise and of the entire state for estimation and management of shifts of labor resources to be set up in the cities. The more so since the director of the enterprise retains the final decision on the question of whether to hire or reject the office's "emissary". Our services are also useful to those starting work.

In our city, with a population of 265,000, of which 144,000 are employed in the field of physical production and 37,000 in nonproductive, the turnover of personnel was reduced from 17.8 percent to 13.2 percent in four years. Changing jobs now takes half as much time in Kaluga as the average for the country. Because of this, nearly 1000 persons have been added to the city's labor potential. Personnel recruitment has improved, a fact which has a positive effect on the outcome of the enterprises' work.

The office performs economic studies and sociological and demographic analysis of the flow of labor resources. Something must be said in particular about the vocational guidance of young people. The office devotes a great deal of attention to this problem. An interschool educational and production combine has been created in the city; it prepares upperclassmen for the mastery of many needed trades: mechanic, lathe hand, vehicle operator, radio repairman, stitcher, bricklayer, etc. The plants helped equip shop classes. By the time he finishes school the young person also receives a job category.

We are extensively enlisting sociologists in this important matter. And in order to direct and coordinate their efforts, the party gorkom

has created a sociological laboratory in which representatives of the major plants, workers of party, Soviet, trade union and Komsomol organizations and specialists from the job placement office participate.

We also consider it advisable to transfer the job placement of all young people who have finished school or trade school and work on organizational recruitment and coordination in the "plant-secondary school-trade school" triangle to our office. In short, we are convinced that the "municipal personnel department" can and must reduce expenditures of time on job placement as much as possible and must regulate the flow of personnel in a purposeful manner.

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LABOR

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS PROMISE SMOOTHER JOB PLACEMENT PROCESS

Baku VYSHKA in Russian 11, Apr 80 p 3

[Article by E. Aliyev, deputy chairman of the State Committee on Labor of the Azerbaijan SSR: "How To Find a Job Quickly — Public Job Placement Bureaus Are Opening in Baku, Sumgait, and Kirovabad"]

[Text] Margiz Mamedova read a notice in the newspaper that a certain factory needed seamstresses. She wrote down the address and a few days later went to the enterprise. In the personnel department she found out that the factory has a nursery school but it cannot take everyone who wants to place children there. She had to go away empty-handed. So once again she began reading notices in the newspaper and asking friends about working conditions at this or that particular enterprise.

Imran Sultanov also went to a plant following a notice. He was readily accepted into the machine shop, but then released one month later. There was no place for him in the dormitory, and he decided that he would look for a more convenient place of work.

As these examples show, the process of redistribution of labor resources involves irreplaceable losses. Sociologists have calculated that with independent job hunting a person loses about 25 days finding a new position. For this reason alone 700,000 people a year, hypothetically, do not work in the country.

These losses are especially great when the work force is shifting between sectors, which often involves workers' changing occupations and losing qualifications. As a result, society is forced to spend a great deal of money to retrain the workers.

Speaking at the ceremony awarding the Order of Lenin to the capital of Azerbaijan, Leonid Il'ich Brezhnev remarked that life has posed an important question: the question of using labor resources. "In Azerbaijan," L. I. Brezhnev said, "as in the other Caucasian republics

and in Central Asia, a large part of the able-bodied population is still not involved in public production."

The Central Committee of the Communist Party of Azerbaijan, in its decree on steps toward practical performance of the tasks outlined in Leonid Il'ich's statements in Baku in 1978, specifically obligated oblast, city, and rayon party committees and ministries and departments to step up work to make fuller use of labor resources in public production.

The opening of bureaus for job placement and information to the public in our three largest cities, Baku, Sumgait, and Kirovabad, will unquestionably help solve this problem. The decree of the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers, and AUCCTU entitled "Further Strengthening of Labor Discipline and Reduction of Labor Turnover in the National Economy" also demands development of the network of employment bureaus.

Under conditions in Azerbaijan the local agencies of the job placement and public information service are expected to play a decisive part. As an element of the state system of job placement, the city bureaus will help realize the guaranteed right of citizens to jobs and to choose work in conformity with their desires and capabilities, while also meeting national economic needs.

The experience accumulated in the fraternal republics of our country must be taken into account in organizing their work.

An analysis made with data from the committees on labor of 12 Union republics showed that reducing job-hunting time by means of the bureaus made it possible in 1977 alone to enlist about 62,000 hypothetical annual workers in the national economy. At the same time, employees placed by the employment bureaus are 13 percent more likely to stay on the job than workers who found the job independently. Moreover, the analysis indicated that after arrival at the new place of work persons who had found the job on their own were much more likely to change occupation and place of work than those sent by bureaus. For example, in Belorussia half of the former category changed their place of work, while only one out of four who were accepted through bureau recruitment did, and in Tadzhikistan it was just one out of 10.

This kind of effectiveness is no accident. The chief reason for it is that persons who take a job through the bureau are better informed about working conditions at the particular enterprises. Here is why. Usually a person seeking a job reads various announcements and asks around. As a rule he cannot receive exhaustive information, for example about the availability of rooms in the dormitory or at children's pre-school institutions, not to mention other benefits. The employment bureau is informed of precisely these things, and a person who comes

to them can find out not only what occupations are in demand at the particular enterprise, but also about working and living conditions.

All this gives citizens an opportunity for a broad choice in the place of future work taking into account individual desires, specializations, and qualifications. It is significant that people getting jobs through the bureaus are usually placed within one week.

The bureaus concentrate vast, varied information on the composition of the population which comes to them with questions about job placement, the processes of work force movement and their scale, and the personnel needs of enterprises. Analysis of this information makes it possible to develop concrete steps to make worker turnover more orderly reduce the losses associated with this process.

The reduction in time lost for job placement, the great likelihood that workers will stay on the new job, and having work that conforms to one's vocation and qualifications have a beneficial effect on the labor activism of citizens and their labor productivity and reduce losses in the family budget that arise with the transition to new work. All these are the questions that the new public employment bureaus will be handling. They will be operated with money paid by enterprises and organizations for job finding and public information services. The enterprises and organizations will pay for services at rates ratified by the State Committee on Prices of the Azerbaijan SSR.

Because all reference information work concerning enterprise and organization needs for workers and employers will be concentrated at the bureaus, enterprises and organizations can publish notices of jobs available in the press and broadcast them on radio and television only with the authorization of and on behalf of the bureau, without giving their own name and address.

There are, of course, categories of employees who cannot be placed by the bureaus. Among them are employees that are appointed by higher-ranking institutions and organizations, management and engineering-technical workers and employees at enterprises and organizations, scientific associates and leading specialists at scientific research and planning-design organizations, young specialists who have graduated from higher and secondary specialized schools, persons who have completed graduate study, graduates of vocational-technical schools being assigned to jobs according to plan, and employees of state control agencies and establishments, with the exception of service personnel.

Concentrating information on the availability of jobs from a significant number of enterprises and organizations in the city at the bureau makes it possible to offer every job hunter a choice of several possible places of work that fit his occupation and qualifications.

Persons who agree to a proposed job possibility are given an assignment to the job using a standard form which, however, is only recommendatory in nature. This is objectively necessary because of the intermediary character of bureau services, because the right to the final decision belongs, according to existing law, to the employee and enterprise (organization) themselves.

The employment bureaus in the cities of Baku, Kirovabad, and Sumgait will make it possible to use labor resources more efficiently in our republic, which is one of the main conditions for dynamic and proportional development of public production, raising its efficiency, accelerating scientific-technical progress, raising labor productivity, and on this basis improving the material and cultural standard of living of our people.

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LABOR

SPECIALIST OF THE FUTURE DESCRIBED

Riga SOVETSKAYA LITVA in Russian 9 Jan 80 p 3

[Article by I. Bestuzhev-Lada, Doctor of Historical Sciences, professor at the Institute of Sociological Research, USSR Academy of Sciences: "The Specialist of the Year 2000. What Should He Be?]

[Text] Those who are sitting at the school desk today are the specialists of the future. What will they be?

Life imperiously dictates its demands. And the principal one is: a specialist with a diploma must correspond as completely as possible to the level of development of social production -- that real-life situation in which he will have to work.

Concerning the situation, there exists completely reliable information provided by long-term scientific-technical and socioeconomic forecasting.

First, the productive forces of society, the material-technical base of production, will receive considerable development. This will find its expression, in particular, in the complete mechanization of various branches, not only in industry, construction, agriculture, transportation, and communication, but also for certain monotonous types of labor in the sphere of services, national education, public health, culture, administration, etc. There will be a substantial advance in automation and even the "cyberneticization" (automation of mental labor) of a number of production processes. Unattractive labor, to a greater and greater extent, will be transferred to mechanization, automation, and electronics, providing the opportunity for a person to concentrate on the most complicated types of creative labor.

Secondly, one should expect further progress in social relations in conformity with the criteria of mature socialism. This, in particular, will find its expression in the complication and the increase in the role of the labor collective, the direction of which by the specialist will prove to be much more complicated than it is today.

Finally, thirdly, the specialist with a diploma will have to come in contact in his work with people who, according to the level of their efficiency and qualifications, will be much more different from our contemporaries than the latter are, say, from the workers of the 1920's and 1930's. We can imagine an engineer, physician, or teacher of the relatively recent past, surrounded by peasants or relatively unqualified workers (who at that time constituted more than nine-tenths of the population of the USSR), at best with three or four grades of education, and we can then compare that situation with the present-day situation, when three-fourths of the workers have, as a minimum, secondary education. Then we can imagine the situation in the year 2000, when everyone will have that minimum, and a considerable number of people will have training on the level of nighttime general-educational universities. The comparison will make it possible to realize the substantial increase in the requirements that will be made of the specialist with the diploma, who is capable of becoming an authority for these workers.

The specialist of the future must have a thorough knowledge of his own very narrow area of specialization. In addition, he must be well oriented in the related areas, each of which, in view of the observed tendencies in scientific-technical progress, can easily prove to fall in his area of specialization also. Finally, he must be a person with the very highest overall culture -- otherwise he will not have time to assimilate the rapidly accelerating progress or to win the authority of a leader, he will be unable to develop even the capability of guiding a collective of highly educated workers.

It is no secret that one senses right now various shortcomings in all these three regards. It still happens that when the specialist with a diploma arrives on the production job, he has to graduate, as it were, from a "second institution of higher learning," since it turns out that much of what he learned as a student has become obsolete or is completely unnecessary, and he did not have time to study much that is critically important. One still encounters engineer-technical or scientific workers who lack the proper esthetic education, who are physically untrained (just as, incidentally, one still encounters figures in the arts who are ignorant about technology or science, or sportsmen who have only the foggiest notion of art and science). There are specialists who have lived for years on previously acquired knowledge, although it is generally known that during the era of the NTR [scientific-technical revolution] knowledge can become obsolete very quickly, and if that knowledge is not regularly renewed, the specialist, irrespective of his degrees and his titles, can rapidly become a pseudospecialist.

Taking all this into consideration, in our country an intensive search is already underway for ways to increase the effectiveness of training for specialists of the future decades. Serious attention has been devoted to assuring that secondary schools provide not only general education, but also the practical skills required for a professional education, so that the training of the specialist can begin at the earliest possible age.

An idea that is being discussed is the idea of differentiating between special secondary and higher education, according to the peculiarities of the

work to be performed by the future specialist. For example, when training "practical workers" (that is, the overwhelming majority of the graduates of institutions of higher learning), it is proposed to make the introductory theoretical course more compact, and to increase greatly the practical pre-diploma work, so that the future "commander of production" will not feel that he is a greenhorn when he is on his "captain's bridge."

For the "theoreticians" (designers, scientific workers), the framework of the theoretical course can be expanded, and the practical pre-diploma work can be tied in more closely with the peculiarities of the future worker.

Provision is being made for the regular (at least once every 5-7 years) retraining of specialists at all levels of qualification. A question that is being posed is the question of the necessity of improving the work of the nighttime general-educational universities in such a way that they will have a quality of education that is equivalent to that of the special higher schools.

It is important to emphasize that the specialist with a diploma in the year 2000 will not differ substantially from the worker without a diploma (as used to be the case), either with regard to his level of overall culture, many practical professional skills, or wages. This is a completely natural process, and one of the aspects of the development of social homogeneity in society under conditions of mature socialism. A leader should be distinguished from the people subordinate to him only by his higher level of special knowledge (and the corresponding nonformal authority), by his broader horizon (and corresponding authority), and by his more highly developed ability to set goals and to find ways to achieve them.

In the more remote future, these differences will gradually be eliminated, and under the conditions of the communist society the division of workers into those who have a diploma and those who do not, apparently, will lose its meaning. But for the next few decades the demands on training, regular retraining, and permanent self-education (both general and special) for the specialist with a diploma will grow steadily. And there will be just as continuously an improvement in the system of training also.

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EDUCATION

LAGGING IN SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION PROGRAM

Moscow UCHITEL'SKAYA GAZETA in Russian 18 Mar 80 p 2

[USSR Education Ministry session on school construction progress]

[Text] The USSR Ministry of Education Board and the Education, Higher School and Scientific Establishment Workers Union Central Committee Presidium discussed at a joint session the results of fulfillment of the plans for the construction of educational facilities in the period 1976-1979.

It was noted that the Ukrainian, Belorussian, Uzbek, Georgian and Lithuanian union republics coped most successfully with the quotas of 4 years of the five-year plan. At the same time the Azerbaijan SSR only fulfilled the 4-year plan for the inauguration of schools 75 percent, the Kazakh SSR 72 and the Kirgiz SSR 89 percent. The Tuvinskaya, Karel'skaya, Komi and Checheno-Ingushskaya autonomous republics and Orlovskaya, Tomskaya and Tul'skaya oblasts allowed the greatest lagging to develop in the RSFSR.

The 4-year target for the installation of children's preschool establishments from state capital investments was realized 105 percent. But considerable lagging was allowed to develop in the construction of these facilities from the resources of all-union communist unpaid Saturday work.

The plan for the erection of boarding homes attached to the schools, apartments houses for teachers and hostels for teacher-training institutions was not accomplished in full.

The main reason for this situation, it was said at the session, was the inadequate work of the contracting organizations, which failed to insure precise fulfillment of the planned schedules at the projects due for inauguration and also permitted shortcomings in material-technical supplies to the construction sites. In the 4 years just the organizations of the USSR Ministry of Construction and organization of the USSR Ministry of Rural

Construction fell more than 17,000 and more than 139,000 places short respectively in providing public education with new places for students.

The USSR Ministry of Education Board and the Education, Higher School and Scientific Establishment Workers Union Central Committee Presidium adopted an appropriate decree on the question under discussion.

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EDUCATION

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE FOR MOSCOW HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Moscow UCHITEL'SKAYA GAZETA in Russian 18 Mar 80 p 2

[Report on vocational guidance session: "Cooperation of School and Production"]

[Text] A routine session of the Interdepartmental Methods Council for the Vocational Guidance of Youth has been held in Moscow under the chairmanship of USSR Education Minister M. A. Prokof'yev. It studied the question "Cooperation of the Secondary General Educational Schools and Their Base Enterprises in the Job Instruction, Training and Vocational Guidance of the Students."

A. I. Soldatov, director of the First Moscow Instrument-Making Plant, R. M. Beskina, director of the 67th High School of Moscow's Kievskiy Rayon, L. P. Shilo, deputy chief of Moscow's Public Education Main Administration, Ye. I. Sharova, secretary of Moscow Oblast's Solnechnogorskiy Gorkom, and V. I. Denisov, chief of the USSR Ministry of Light Industry Labor Organization, Wages and Personnel Administration, delivered reports.

It was noted that the attention of party, soviet and economic bodies and enterprise collectives to preparing schoolchildren for life and work had increased. The schools' and industrial-training centers' relations with their base enterprises are strengthening. In Moscow, for example, the patrons are helping the education workers to improve the physical plant: 800 manual work rooms for children of grades 1 through 3 have been equipped, and the lathe and fitter's workshops for grades 4 through 8 have been modernized. At 40 interschool industrial-training centers and in 54 shops senior-grade students are familiarizing themselves with 72 occupations most essential to the city's economy. The patrons have also displayed concern for the instructors: they are highly skilled workers and production pacesetters.

An appropriate decision was made on the question under study.

CPSU Central Committee Executive M.M. Budanov, F.G. Panachin, first deputy USSR education minister, deputy ministers K.G. Nozhko and V.M. Korotov,

V. A. Sayushev, first deputy chairman of the USSR State Committee for Vocational-Technical Education, V. G. Ivanov, deputy chairman of the USSR Gosstroy, M. I. Kondakov, vice president of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, A. V. Nevzorov, deputy chief of the USSR Central Statistical Administration, ministry and department executives and party, soviet, labor union and Komsomol organization representatives participated.

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DEMOGRAPHY

STATISTICS ON WOMEN, CHILDREN IN LITHUANIA

Vil'nyus KOMMUNIST in Russian No 2, Feb 80 pp 83-84

[Report by M. Karalene, chief of the Lithuanian SSR Central Statistical Administration Department of Population and Public Health Statistics: "The Women and Children of Soviet Lithuania"]

[Text] In 1980 Soviet Lithuania has 3,396,000 inhabitants, 47 percent of whom men and 53 percent women, there being 1,119 women for every 1,000 men.

In 1939 some 22 percent of all women lived in cities and 78 percent in the country. Currently 61 percent of all women live in cities and 39 percent in the country.

Currently 50 percent of all women in the republic and 57 percent of the men were born since the war.

The average lifespan, which has reached 66 years for men and 75 years for women, is lengthening. It has lengthened by approximately 20 years compared with 1923.

Number of Women (thousands)

Year	Total	In Cities	In a Rural Locality	Women's percentage of total population
1939	1,499	330	1,169	52.0
1959	1,466	573	893	54.1
1970	1,660	830	830	53.1
1978	1,780	1,055	725	52.9
1979	1,794	1,092	702	52.8

Among the cities and rayons of Soviet Lithuania the lowest proportion of women (approximately 50 percent) lives in the city of Klaypeda and in Akmyanskiy, Ionavskiy, Alitusskiy and Shal'chininkskiy rayons. There are fewest men in Utenskiy, Tel'shyayskiy and Ionishkskiy rayons.

One-fourth of all the inhabitants of the republic is children.

Considerably more women have been marrying at a young age in the years of Soviet power. In 1939 girls who married at the age of 20-24 constituted 30 percent and men 17 percent of those who married. In 1959 women who married in the 20-24-year range constituted 42 percent of the total number of those who married, and in 1978 there were both 50 percent of women and 50 percent of men in this range.

Some 229 consultation clinics, children's and outpatient departments display constant concern for the health of the future mother and child in Soviet Lithuania. Some 2,457 hospital beds have been allocated for pregnant women and women in labor, and almost 7,000 beds have been allocated for sick children.

All our infants first see the light of day in hospitals, as a rule, under the observation of doctors and other skilled medical workers.

Working women are granted 56 days of paid leave prior to childbirth and as much following the birth. In the even of a child taking sick up to the age of 14, the mother is granted 7 days with pay to look after it. If the illness persists, the child is put in the hospital.

Some 13,000 doctors of various fields are currently working in Lithuania. There were only 2,000 of them in 1940. There has been an even greater increase in the number of intermediate medical personnel--from 2,000 in 1948 to 35,500 in 1979. The total number of hospital beds rose in this time from 8,900 to 39,100.

There are considerably more sanatoria, convalescent homes and boarding houses, and the number of beds therein is over 17,900.

Well-organized recreation in the summer period plays a big part in strengthening the health of and tempering and raising children. More than 353,000 children, 32 percent more than in 1975, recreated or underwent treatment in 1978.

A considerable reduction in infant mortality has been achieved thanks to constant concern for the health of the mother and child. Mortality among infants under 12 months old has been reduced sevenfold compared with 1940.

More than two-thirds of urban children aged 3-6 are being raised in kindergarten and nursery-creches, and, together with the day nurseries, approximately 40 percent of all children up to the age of 7.

Kindergarten and nurseries for 144,000 children have been built since the war. R3.2 million was spent on the upkeep of kindergarten in 1960, whereas R47.9 mil on was spent in 1978. Expenditure on the upkeep of schools and boarding schools in the above period tripled and that on kindergarten

increased fifteenfold. In addition, the resources of state, cooperative, labor union and other public organizations and kolkhozes are also spent on these needs.

In the years of the bourgeoisie's rule in Lithuania only 1 out of every 10 inhabitants attended schools of all types; currently 3 out of every 10 inhabitants attend.

Some 2,310 general educational schools, the majority of which have been built since the war, are operating in Lithuania. More than half a million children are attending the daytime general educational schools alone in the present academic year, and over 90 percent of the children attend newly built schools.

Some 70,000 students were attending VUZ's at the start of the 1979-1980 academic year. Some 38,000 (54.2 percent) of these were women.

Women constitute 52 percent of the republic's workers and employees. Compared with 1945 the number of women workers and employees has increased thirteenfold, while the total number of workers and employees has increased sevenfold.

Women constitute 83 percent of the total number of those employed in public health, physical culture and social security establishments (67 percent in 1945), 77 percent in the commerce and the public catering, material-technical supply and sales systems (64 percent in 1945), 78 percent in educational and cultural establishments (53 percent in 1945) and 66 percent in the state and administrative apparatus (30 percent in 1945).

In 1945 women constituted only one-fourth of all industrial workers; they now constitute 51 percent.

Women constitute 54.6 percent of all those working in the national economy with higher education.

Women constitute 40 percent of agronomists, animal specialists and veterinarians with higher education working in agriculture.

Women constitute 65.5 percent of those with secondary education working in the national economy.

Fifteen women are industrial enterprise directors, and 33 are chief engineers and their deputies; and 49 percent of workers with engineer, design engineer and production engineer qualifications are women, as are 16.7 percent of shop chiefs and their deputies and almost one-third of senior foremen and foremen.

Twelve women are kolkhoz chairmen, 9 are sovkhos directors, 192 are first deputy kolkhoz chairmen, 115 are sovkhos division managers, 90 are chief

agronomists on kolkhoses, 33 on sovkhoses and 1,625 are animal specialists on kolkhoses, 622 on sovkhoses.

In Soviet Lithuania 48 women are doctors of science (15 percent of all doctors of science) and 1,292 are candidates of science (29 percent). Three women have been elected corresponding members of the Lithuanian SSR Academy of Sciences.

Some 218 women are engaged in graduate study (24 percent of all graduate students).

Almost 21,000 of the republic's women have been awarded orders and medals of the USSR. Of these, one has been awarded the title Hero of the Soviet Union and 46 the title Hero of Socialist Labor.

The network of public catering enterprises is expanding. There were 305 such enterprises in 1945 and 3,498 in 1979.

Women's housework is increasingly being alleviated by the expanding water supply-sewer network, gas supply and the growing network of consumer service establishments. In 1940 there were water supplies in three and a sewer system in seven Lithuanian cities. In 1979 some 65 cities had municipal water supply, and 60 cities had a sewer system. Some 88.3 percent of apartments enjoy gas supply in the cities, and more than 50 percent in the country. All rural population centers have electricity supply.

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BOOK BY YANKOVA ON URBAN FAMILIES REVIEWED

Moscow OBRUCHENSTVENNYE NAUKI V SSSR in Russian No 1, Seriya 1, 1980 pp 109-116

[Review by P. I. Shlemin of the book "Gorodskaya sem'ya" [The Urban Family] by Z. A. Yankova, Sociological Research Institute, USSR Academy of Sciences, Izdatel'stvo Nauka, Moscow, 1979, 184 pages]

[Text] The work consists of 10 chapters. The first is entitled "Statement of the Problem and the Language of Research." The family is regarded by Soviet sociologists, just as by sociologists of other socialist countries, in the following terms: as a specific subsystem of society; as one of the basic social cells; as a small socio-psychological group.

From the point of view of the author, the "concept of the 'structure of the family' includes a definite character of interrelationships among the members of the latter in the process of the socially meaningful forms of their activity, and also of behavior and consciousness as they are determined by the social living conditions as a whole" (p 25). In defining the concept of "function of the family," its functions in respect to society and its functions in respect to individual members of the family are distinguished.

The second chapter is "General (Statistical) Description of the Family." With a growth in the population of the USSR by 15.8 percent during the period between the censuses of 1959 and 1970, the number of families has increased by 16.7 percent, while it has increased from 242 to 243 when computed in terms of 1,000 people in the population. In all in 1970 there were 58,700,000 families. The average size of a family, 3.7 people, has remained unchanged, since, on the one hand, the number of women who are not married has decreased, while, on the other hand, the process of nuclearization of families has been intensified. A growth in the number of divorces has also had an effect in this direction: from 1.3 per 1,000 people in 1960 to 2.6 in 1970 and 3.4 in 1976. The basic factor in the reduction of the number in the family has been a reduction in the birth rate; the ratio of the birth rate (per 1,000 people in the population) in 1960 amounted to 24.9 (21.9 in the city and 27.8 in the village), while in 1970 it was respectively 17.4 (16.4 and 18.7); and, in 1976, 18.4 (17.2 and 20.3) (p 32).

Whereas the average size of the urban family is 3.5 people, the size of the Moscow family has been reduced from 3.3 in 1960 to 3.2 in 1970 (p 33). In Moscow approximately one-half of the mothers have one child, nearly one-half have two children, and a group of them comprising several percentage points has three or more. The proportion of those not having children among married women in the age bracket of 35 to 39 years amounts to 6.5 percent (p 35).

Acknowledging widely-known conformances to law and these conformances notwithstanding, "the lower the over-all level of the birth rate in a region, the less the differences in the number of children among various groups of the population" (p 36). Thus, in Moscow the number of children among mothers with a higher, incomplete higher or specialized secondary education is only 11 percent less than among women with primary education. It is the author's opinion that the fall in the birth rate among the educated portion of the urban populace has reached its limit or is very close to it.

The basic type of family is the family consisting of one married pair with children or without them. In cities 64.3 percent of the families are of this type, as are 62.7 percent in the countryside, while 58.9 percent fall into this category in Moscow. A type of family related to it includes one of the parents of the spouses or other relatives who are not members of the wedded pair. In the village 17.2 percent of the families are so constituted, 15 percent in cities and 15.4 percent in Moscow (p 38). In the cities 3.8 percent of the families consist of two or more married pairs; 3.8 percent of the families in the villages are so constituted, whereas the figure is 4.8 percent for Moscow (under conditions characteristic of a large city, daily contacts by married children with parents have been hampered, which reduces the opportunities for mutual assistance and often holds back young people from separating from the parental family). The number of incomplete families (in the overwhelming majority of instances, families without the father) in cities amounts to 5.1 million (15 percent) and 3.6 million (14 percent) in rural localities (p 40). In Moscow the proportion of incomplete families among all families having children—nearly 25 percent—is explained by the very high level of divorce (49 divorces per 100 marriages in 1970 as against 33 divorces per 100 marriages for the country as a whole) (p 41).

The author writes that the need is long overdue at the present time, besides numerical and demographic typology, to implement a typology of the family on the basis of sociological descriptions (to begin with, on the basis of an analysis of the structure of the interrelationships and functions of the family).

The third chapter is "The Occupational Work of Women as a Most Important Factor in the Formation of Her Personality and Changes in Family-and-Everyday Life Functions." In 1970, 80 percent of the women of able-bodied age worked in various sectors of the national economy and 7.5 percent were taking

* The birth rate in urban settlements is lower than in rural ones, it is lower in large cities than in small and medium-size cities, while workers have more children than office workers, etc. (p 36).

instruction in educational institutions. The level of occupational employment of women at the present time amounts to 93.6 percent of the level of employment of males (p 48). Women make up 58 percent of certified specialists (p 50). The majority of women view vocational activity as a most important determinant in predetermining their equal and independent status in society, prestige in the family and authority with respect to the husband. Among women employees of the middle-rung and low skills, the aspiration to provide for additional wages for the family prevails. Material considerations occupy one of the last places in the structure of motives for labor activity by highly-skilled women employees.

The share of women in the total number of those employed for the USSR as a whole amounts to 51 percent (ranging from 39 to 54 percent by republics). Women make up 81 percent of those employed in public health care, physical culture and social security; women comprise 80 percent in the extension of credit and state insurance, 73 percent in education and culture, 76 percent in public catering, supply and trade, etc. (p 51). However, it is not only and not so much the high level of her employment in social production as it is a change in the nature, composition, motives and direction-orientedness of their labor that is the factor determining the social status of a woman under socialism.

Ensuring the rational employment of women presupposes the creation of an optimum labor schedule which responds to specific psychophysical features and enables women to combine professional and family-and-everyday life activity harmoniously. A brake is being applied to the solution of this problem by the retention of vestiges of de facto inequality. Thus, for a number of reasons the proportion of women in certain spheres of the national economy fluctuates from 17 to 83 percent, which gives birth to imbalances in the employment of men and women in terms of territorial units and differences in working conditions, in the work schedule and in productivity. Surpassing males in terms of educational level, women lag behind them in terms of job skills.

The fourth chapter is "Factors in the Socio-Demographic Development of the Family." Influenced by changes in the social status of women and by the new way of life, a certain demographic ideal has been formulated and a certain attitude toward the structure and functions of the family has taken shape. It is the opinion of Soviet demographers that the demand to have even if it be only one child exists in practically every family. The realization of this demand depends on various circumstances. Thus, the birth rate is lower in major cities and among individuals with a higher level of education. The results of a budget survey by the USSR Central Statistical Administration in 1972 revealed the presence of a "direct connection between the number of births and the total income among women with little education" (p 73). Other research has shown that not only the amount of income and the size of the family, but also the share of the wife's wages in it are of importance—the higher the share of it is, the more frequent the refusal to have repeated childbirths. On the whole, a family with a high income has then more objective potentials for rearing a larger number of children; however, "a rise in the level of income promotes the realization of other demands, which

to a certain extent crowd out or put off for some time the demand to have yet another child" (p 43).

The fifth chapter, "Sociological Indicators of the Functioning and Development of the Family," is devoted to specific questions in the organization of sociological research.

The sixth chapter is entitled "Structure and Functions of the Family." An analysis of empirical material has shown that on the average in 30 percent of the urban families surveyed, a third of the families collaborate in everyday household work, while in approximately 50 percent of the families they collaborate on the upbringing of the children. 71.5 percent of the spouses in an urban family talk with one another about family affairs, 52.3 percent talk about books they have read, films they have seen, etc., 37 percent talk about political and public events, 50.2 percent talk about production and public work and studies and 31.9 percent have amateur pursuits and enthusiasms in common (p 98).

An analysis of the motif of domination enables one to draw a conclusion concerning the retention in the modern-day urban family of vestiges of the concept of the functions of the head: husband-and-principal wage earner and the wife-and-housewife, but these concepts are not usually backed up by the corresponding relationships. At the same time, changes in the structure of interrelationships in the family and of factors in the consciousness of the spouses have foreordained the appearance of new difficulties, contradictions and conflict situations. The latter more frequently than not arise in connection with the vocational and public activity of the woman and with the stepped-up work load which she bears on the job and in the family. Difficulties and conflicts also arise in connection with the birth of a child.

The functions of a family are the following: physical reproduction, upbringing, economic-everyday life functions, the organization of leisure time and the sexual-emotional-hedonistic functions. The characteristic changes in the functions of the family have been directed in the main toward the shaping of the personality qualities of man and toward the creation of a definite socio-psychological climate in the family. The functions of matrimony are becoming ever more and more ones of value in themselves, satisfying the demands of the spouses for personal happiness, and not just of providing for family functions. The duration of the fulfillment of reproductive functions by the modern-day urban family has been reduced to 10 to 12 years.

The seventh chapter is "Homogeneity-and-Heterogeneity in Family Relations." Research shows that the highest proportion of heterogeneous families is observed among the fringe strata of society—among worker-intellectuals and experienced workers occupying positions of specialists, while the lowest proportion is among employees of physical labor with a low level of education and skills and also among employees of mental labor with the highest qualifications. In heterogeneous families, a gradual equalizing of the level of general and specialized knowledge of the spouses and the molding in them of uniform social orientations, demands and interests is occurring. The fact

that spouses belong to this or that class or to this or that social stratum is having ever less of an effect on differences in the nature of family domination.

The eighth chapter is entitled "The Family and Its Social Microenvironment." The materials from research in Moscow have revealed the demand by the majority of respondents to live sufficiently near to their relatives in order to maintain continual contacts with them, but sufficiently far from them so as not always to be under their direct supervision and observation. In Moscow, when parents dwell at a distance not exceeding 30 minutes of travel, constant and regular contacts with them are maintained by 60 percent of the families. If then it takes from 30 minutes to an hour on the road to the parents' house, then the proportion of families maintaining constant contacts with them is reduced to 30 percent (p 131). The most intimate relations are maintained with the wife's parents by married pairs living apart from them. Regular mutual material assistance among relatives, in the past directed toward day-to-day consumption of material blessings, has given way to periodic material support during major acquisitions. Children who are near to each other in terms of age and a similar educational level are the most meaningful factors promoting the emergence of personal relationships among neighbors.

The ninth chapter is "Intrafamily Conflicts and Overcoming Them." Socialist marriage law rejects both the principle of the absolute indissolubility of marriage as well as the principle of absolute freedom of divorce. For the USSR as a whole, there were 3.4 divorces per 1,000 inhabitants in 1976, while there were 5.9 in Leningrad and 5.4 in Moscow (p 146). High indicators for the divorce rate have been ascertained in Latvia (4.8 in 1973) and Estonia (3.2 in 1973) and low rates in Central Asia and the Transcaucasus (0.9 in Armenia) (p 147). On the average, among women one-third of all divorces fall at an age prior to 25 years, while among men they fall prior to 30 years (p 147). Nearly 30 percent of the marriages that are dissolved have a duration of up to 5 years (p 148). Repeat divorces are 1.5 times to twice as frequent in cities as they are in villages and are characteristic of men in the age bracket of 34 to 40 years and of women ranging from 30 to 35 years old (p 149). As a result, an "aging" of the age structure of marriage is being observed and, consequently, demographic trouble. According to data from sociological research, women more often emerge as the initiators in the dissolution of marriage (in Leningrad 65 to 69 percent, in Moscow 68 percent), while two-thirds of the marriages being dissolved have existed more than 5 years (pp 150-151). The majority of those questioned who were divorced for the first time noted their inability when it came to adaptation and to rational sharing of labor, i.e., they did not stand the test of continuous social intercourse.

Sociological research in Moscow, Penza and Yegor'yevsk has established four basic types of families. For the first, authoritarian family norms and the hierarchical nature of the interrelationships corresponding to them are characteristic. In such families the following appear as the most widespread motives for conflict situations and divorce: adultery (18 percent), loss of feelings (16 percent), overburdening of women with household chores (nearly 30 percent), the absence of mutual understanding, a low level of cooperation

(nearly 20 percent) and a high level of exactingness. For the second type, the retention of authoritarian norms is characteristic, but equality in the actual relationships is already evident. The following are named here as motives for conflicts: "sudden" rudeness (nearly 25 percent), loss of feelings (20 percent), overburdening of the woman with household chores (nearly 30 percent) and a poor psychological climate (nearly 20 percent). For the third type, new norms of equality and the retention of vestiges of old, authoritarian relationships at their base are specified. The following predominate here among the motives for conflict: despotism and rudeness of the husband (nearly 30 percent), loss of feelings (nearly 15 percent), overburdening with family chores (nearly 30 percent) and a low level of mutual understanding and intimacy. In families of the fourth type, a correspondence of the norms and behavior of their members is observed, i.e. equality and mutual understanding. Conflict situations arise chiefly owing to the "'complexity' of family dialog" (nearly 15 percent), interference by third parties (nearly 3 percent), living apart and the absence of a clearly defined division of labor (nearly 30 percent) (pp 161-162).

It is necessary to differentiate as a whole between conflicts within a family and conflicts between families and other social institutions. The motives for divorce in urban families apply in 60 percent of the cases to conflicts of the first type and in 20 percent of the cases to conflicts of the second type.

The tenth chapter is entitled "Measures to Assist the Family and the Woman." Demographic processes fall among the ranks of those processes that do not lend themselves to direct control. Because of this, one must implement their regulation indirectly, by means of improving living conditions and the way of life of the family as a whole. It is the opinion of the author that, given the present-day growth in the income of Soviet people, material measures will lose their importance as incentives in a demographic policy. At the same time, "payments out of public funds create confidence in tomorrow and permit one, when choosing the type of activity for all members of the family, to be governed not only by external need, but also by internal inducements and interests" (p 168). Cooperation in the sphere of everyday life is a specific form of public assistance to the family. Pre-school and out-of-school children's institutions have been summoned to supplement family upbringing and to promote the optimum combination of the family and vocational roles of the spouses. The author cites "family services," all kinds of consultation, etc., as being a new form of assistance to the family.

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BOOK BY KISELEVA ON BIRTH RATE REVIEWED

Moscow OBSHCHESTVENNYE NAUKI V SSSR in Russian No 1, Seriya 1, 1980 pp 116-120

[Review by P. I. Shlemin of the book "Nuzhno li povyshat' rozhdayemost'?"
[Is It Necessary to Increase the Birth Rate?] by G. P. Kiseleva, Izdatel'-
stvo Statistika, Moscow, 1979, 103 pages, (Statistika dlya vsekh), Biblio-
graphy: p. 102]

[Text] Beginning with 1929 the level of the birth rate in the USSR began to fall markedly. If during the period from 1924 to 1928 this indicator fluctuated within the limits of 43 to 44 per thousand, then as early as 1940 it amounted to 31.2 per thousand (30.5 in cities, 31.5 in the village) (pp 33-34). After a sharp drop in the birth rate during the years of the Great Patriotic War [World War II], a new compensatory upsurge in the birth rate set in, a distinctive feature of which was its extension through a period of time. However, a full restoration of the pre-war level of the birth rate did not occur. During the course of the 1950's, this indicator amounted to 24 to 26 per thousand. Beginning with 1960 the level of the birth rate proceeded to subside, having dipped in 1969 to 17 per thousand (18.2 in 1977) (p 34). This is a sufficiently high indicator for an economically developed country: thus, in 1975 14.8 children were born per 1,000 of the population in the USA, 12.4 in Great Britain and 12.3 in Austria (p 35).

Demographers have noted that in 1975-1976 a slight increase occurred in the indicators for the birth rate among women in the age bracket from 15 to 19 years when compared with 1938-1939 and a sharp reduction has occurred in these indicators among women of the age of 30 and older. This testifies to the fact that the majority of women complete the formation of a family at an age prior to 30 years, restricting its size to one to two children. An increase in the share of first-born among the ranks of all those who have been born is also linked to a growth in the proportion of early marriages.

There exist in the USSR two types of reproduction of the population. The basic type is reproduction which is close to simple reproduction, which is characteristic of the majority of the population and is marked by a low and consciously restricted birth rate (where not only the number of children, but also the time of their appearance is planned) and by low mortality. With this type of reproduction the population increases by 0.5 percent per year.

This type of reproduction is characteristic of republics in which 78.2 percent of the population of the USSR dwell.

The other type of reproduction, which is based on a high, consciously unrestricted birth rate and low mortality, is characteristic of the native population of the republics of Central Asia (9.4 percent of the country's population). With this type of reproduction the population increases by 2 to 3 percent annually.

Finally, some republics occupy an intermediate position in terms of the type of reproduction of the population: Georgia and Moldavia (3.4 percent of the entire population) are nearer to the first type, while Kazakhstan, Armenia and Azerbaijan (9 percent of the population of the USSR) are closer to the second type.

It is the author's opinion that the entire population of the country will come around to the first type of birth rate in the future, although not at one and the same time.

The USSR occupies one of the first places in the world in terms of the level of employment of women in social production. If the proportion of women among workers and office workers amounted to 38 percent (1972) in the USA and Japan, then it was 51.5 percent (1977) in the USSR (p 56). The employment of women in social production is considerably differentiated among the Union republics, such that, the higher the percentage of working women, the lower the level of the birth rate. However, in the opinion of the author, at the present time "the intensiveness of the birth rate is being reduced not so much owing to an increase in the [work] load and a reduction in the free time available among working women, as owing to the effect of other factors" (p 59). The requirement to have children and the number of the latter in the family depend on the educational level and level of skills and on how much the degree of the family's well-being is in keeping with the demands which have been molded. Thus, with an increase in the educational level and the level of income and with an improvement in living conditions, the demands grow for a rise in the standard of living and not infrequently an unfavorable subjective assessment of one's own material situation emerges. This is reflected in the decision of the spouses to have this or that number of children.

The criteria for the demographic optimum are not the same at various stages in the historic development of society and even within the limits of this or that social formation they can, and sometimes also must, be changed. With the present-day rate of scientific-technical progress and the growth of labor productivity, the natural increment in the population of the USSR can be considered to be totally adequate (p 70). This is one of the highest increments of population in terms of its level in the economically developed countries. However, the prospects for a constricted reproduction of the population (RSFSR, Ukrainian SSR, Belorussian SSR, the republics of the Baltic littoral and Georgia) are fully practicable for the greater portion of the territory of the USSR. A systematic reduction in the number of the population at young ages can lower the rate of economic and social development. In particular,

the expenditures of society on the maintenance of individuals who are beyond an age at which they are able-bodied will grow and complications will arise with the replacement of highly skilled personnel. A reduction in the share of youth creates conditions for "a reinforcement of a certain conservatism both in scientific research, as well as in the acceptance of new suggestions, the testing of new methods and the incorporation of the latest scientific achievements" (p 74). Constricted reproduction of the population and its aging can also have demographic, socio-demographic, socio-hygienic, socio-psychological and genetic consequences which are unfavorable to society. At the same time, excessively expanded reproduction of the population requires a constant growth in demographic investments (thus, it is reckoned that for the USSR a growth of the population by 1 percent requires demographic investments in the amount of approximately 4 percent of the national income) and, consequently, a reduction in economic investments. In a number of instances a high natural increment will lead to insufficiently efficient utilization of manpower resources, to a reduction in labor productivity, to the underexploitation of modern-day means of mechanization, etc. The practice of having a large number of children under present-day conditions hampers the participation by women in social production and hinders the harmonious development of the personality. This is, in turn, reflected in the quality of upbringing of the children. Thus, it is difficult under contemporary conditions to consider as being optimum a very high natural increment of the population, just as it is with constricted reproduction.

The optimum type of reproduction can be achieved by means of a demographic policy that includes measures of an economic, legal and educational character. The effectiveness of a demographic policy is ensured by the comprehensive nature of the utilization of all its components. The author, who shares the point of view of the majority of Soviet demographers, thinks that grants will not in themselves lead to a rise in the birth rate. No less important is the creation of those conditions under which the working woman could combine work in social production with the upbringing of children without great stress and under which the appearance of the next child would not entail giving up the satisfaction of one or another of the family's demands. Benefits to families having children could become an effective measure when they are receiving living space from the state or are purchasing it through the housing construction cooperative. An increase in the duration of post-childbirth paid maternity leave, the granting to working mothers of the right to work a partial work day or a partial work week, the development of work performed at home, the expansion of the network of pre-school children's institutions and an improvement in their operations would yield tangible benefits. Finally, measures are needed to reduce the time and to alleviate the burdensome character of household work.

In speaking of the necessity for the shaping of reasonable demands, the author points out that an only child in a family is far from always being a testimony to material deficiencies and housing difficulties. "Not infrequently this is the result of the existence among its parents of that type of system of demands in which a place is found for the car, for the dog, and for coaches for several subjects, but in which there is no place for the second and third

child" (p 96). As the well-being of the populace grows, such a system of values becomes more and more widespread. With all this existing as it is, a one-sided enthusiasm for educational and administrative-legal measures is not in a position to ensure the optimum regime for the reproduction of the population. It is also necessary to keep the ethical aspect of the problem in mind as well. Finally, when drafting measures for a demographic policy, one must take into account the particular features of the life and behavior of local groups of the population.

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DEMOGRAPHY

BRIEFS

HEALTH CARE—The right of Soviet citizens to health protection is guaranteed, to begin with, by the fact that free skilled medical assistance, which is rendered by state institutions of public health care, is placed at their disposal. There are 958,000 physicians working in the Soviet Union, which is more than one-third of all the physicians in the world. An extensive network of institutions for the treatment and strengthening of the health of citizens has been created. In 1979 the number of hospital beds in the USSR amounted to 3,265,000. When calculated in terms of the number of beds per 10,000 individuals in the population, their number has increased from 96 per 10,000 in 1965 to 123 per 10,000 in 1979. In 1979 expenditures on measures for labor safety procedures amounted to 2.4 billion rubles. State capital investments in the rational utilization of natural resources and in environmental protection amounted to 1.9 billion rubles on the average for 1976-1979. [Excerpt] [Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 14, April 80, p 12] 8663

EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS—The compulsory universal secondary education of youth is being carried out in our country. During the years 1966 to 1979 alone, 55 million young men and women obtained a secondary education, either general or specialized. This is twice as many as for all the previous years of Soviet rule. But the right of Soviet citizens to education is not limited to this. It is also ensured by the freedom from charge for all forms of education, by the extensive development of vocational and technical secondary specialized and higher education, by the placing of state stipends and benefits at the disposal of pupils and students and by the free distribution of school textbooks. The expenditures of the state on one pupil computed in terms of a year amount to more than 180 rubles in general educational schools, to 670 rubles in secondary specialized educational institutions and to more than 1,000 rubles in higher educational institutions. There are now more than 140 million people who have higher and secondary (complete and incomplete) education. More than 80 percent of the populace that is employed have such an education. [Excerpt] [Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 14, April 80, p 12] 8663

SOCIAL SECURITY—As of the beginning of 1980 there were 48.6 million people in the USSR who received pensions. The system of social security which has been created in the country permits Soviet people to realize the right which has been written into the Constitution of the USSR to material security in

old age, in case of illness and of full or partial loss of able-bodiedness, as well as the loss of the principal wage earner. All types of pensions and benefits are paid out by virtue of funds from the state or kolkhoz and not by means of deductions from the wages of the workers themselves. The expenditures of the state on social security reached 43 billion rubles in 1980. The age for an old-age pension in our country is 60 years for men and 55 years for women. A number of categories of workers have a lower age for receiving a pension. [Excerpt] [Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 14, April 80, p 12] 8663

UNIVERSAL EMPLOYMENT—The greatest achievement of socialism is the right to labor. In a developed socialist society this means the right to obtain guaranteed work with wages in conformity with its quantity and quality and no lower than the established state minimum amount for wages, including the right to the choice of an occupation and the kind of employment and job in keeping with one's vocation, capabilities, vocational training and education and with social demands taken into consideration. The number of workers and office workers has grown from 76.9 million people in 1965 to 110.6 million people in 1979. The number of specialists with a higher and specialized secondary education who are employed in the national economy has increased from 12.1 million in 1965 to 26.4 million in 1979. There are 4,026 secondary vocational and technical schools, 4,357 specialized secondary educational institutions and 870 higher educational institutions functioning in the USSR. An extensive network for various forms of training on the job as well as a system for improving the skills of workers and specialists have been created. In 1979 alone 2 million specialists, including 800,000 with a higher education and 1.2 million with a specialized secondary education, were sent into the national economy. During the year 2.3 million skilled workers were trained by vocational and technical educational institutions. More than 40 million people were trained for new trades and also improved their qualifications. The army of totally unemployed, those "superfluous people" of capitalist society, exceeded 16 million people in the industrially developed capitalist countries. [Excerpt] [Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 14, April 80, p 12] 8663

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USSR REPORT: Construction and Equipment
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